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ABSTRACT

Recently much attention has been focused on the quality of educational leadership programs in the United States. A central issue in improving the preparation of educational leaders concerns the necessity and value of engaging in more systematic collaboration among universities (and the various units within them), departments of educational leadership within schools of education, government agencies, school districts, and professional associations. This document reviews recent literature on the subject of collaborative investment in educational leadership and administrator preparation programs. It begins by reviewing criticism of current doctoral programs in educational administration to illustrate the principal underlying weakness of the status quo: the mismatch between field experience and the culture of the academy. The next section reviews literature that focuses on the concept of competencies as an educational objective for administrator preparation programs. This is followed by a review of the multiplicity of approaches to content in educational administrator preparation programs. A survey follows of conceptual and programmatic frameworks for clinical experience, along with approaches to collaboration. The review concludes with 22 recommendations for establishing a collaborative, field-based approach to administrator education. A bibliography is included. (TE)

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Collaborative Investment in Educational Leadership/ Administration Preparation Programs

by

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Recently there has been much attention focused upon the quality of educational leadership preparation programs in the United States. Schools of Education are coming under increasing fire for short comings in their programs to prepare educational leadership.

A central issue in improving the preparation of educational leaders concerns increasing the understanding of potential participants in the development of preparation programs and to the necessity and value of engaging in more systematic collaboration between universities (and the various units within them), schools of education - departments of educational leadership, government agencies, school districts and professional associations.

CRITICISM

Critics have charged that programs often place too great an emphasis on administrative theory, and not enough on the knowledge base about learning and the practical application of research. (Rodman, 1987)

An unpublished federal study reported by Euchner (1984) found that the National Institute of Education does a poor job distributing its research findings to the educators who need them the most and recommended an extensive restructuring of the research agency.

Thomson (1988) asks, what ever happened to the notion that all professions rest on a dual knowledge base, the realness of

theory and practice? In most professions, a strong linkage exists between these two worlds.

Peterson and Finn (1985) point out that no set of competencies, experience and knowledge is commonly accepted as the core of any well designed program of graduate study for future administrators. Many programs are inadequate, according to some practitioners and others because they rarely require, or even encourage students to undergo a supervised clinical experience, and practicing administrators, rarely participate in training prospective administrators.

Cunningham (1982) in his appraisal of doctoral programs in educational administration in different parts of the United States found that although there is variation in quality there is an overriding sameness about them. He reported that the work students engage in is overwhelmingly content centered, there is almost no planned leadership skill assessment or development and there is no assurance, that persons who emerge from the programs have leadership skills commensurate with the requirements of the future.

Gibboney (1987) in commenting on the National Commission of Excellence in Educational Administrations endorsement of supervised practice in schools points out that the commission did not address itself to the important questions, supervision in schools of what quality? Can the number of training institutions find quality schools for placement?

Lynton (1983) suggests that particularly at the graduate level, the programs in many of our professional schools have moved away from the issues of the profession to the pursuit of disciplinary goals and the training of academic specialists. As a result there is dissatisfaction with our professional curriculum. We have provided students with knowledge but have failed to help them acquire "the art of utilization of knowledge."

Graduate programs according to Fry and Pasmore (1983) fail by not promoting and developing skills in forms of interaction necessary to achieve collective outcomes such as reaching consensus, innovative, find new solutions to old problems. Higher levels of interaction should be provided in preparation programs.

Jacoby (1987) argues that younger intellectuals no longer need or want a larger public; they are almost exclusively professors. He found that academic life in the United States has not merely become insular and self preoccupied, but that too many of those who live it have quite deliberately turned their backs on the larger society.

Piel (1978) points out that in the pecking order of academia, pure research out ranks applied. Because our universities are departmentalized by discipline and the scholar's career in each department turns on contribution to its parochial interests, it is not surprising that much education research is addressed to the achiever of the disciplines and not to the improvement of education. p. 8

Argyris and Schon (1974), suggest that discipline oriented faculty may espouse values and needs that are not always compatible with the values and needs of the professional who plans to go into service.

They further suggests that the variety, duration and realism of work experiences required to provide opportunity for developing the full range of professional competencies are simply incompatible with the boundaries and structure of school experience as it is currently defined. There is a mismatch between field experience and the culture of the academy. The formal structure required by field activity does not match the structure of semesters, courses and departments. There are operational questions such as degree of faculty involvement, supervision and relation to academic work.

Since the 1960s when the demand for highly trained administrative personnel grew sharply, there have been many modifications in the curriculum of institutions that prepare administrators. Yet the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration in its findings revealed that the field lacks a clear definition of good educational leadership, and preparation programs relevant to the demands on administrators (Rodman, 1987). More emphasis is called for on what a student should learn in order to function more effectively in different environments and in different situations (Silverman, 1970).

COMPETENCY

This reorientation has led to the concept of competencies as an educational objective for administrator preparation programs. The concept has been an impetus for the identification of "skill" (competency) levels in educational administration and at several development stages.

There has been a growing body of research that identifies the skills, abilities and personal characteristics required for effective educational leadership. NASSP has developed a program of assessment and training based on generic skills required by secondary school principal. NAESP has published "Proficiencies for Principals." AASA has defined generic characteristics of successful school superintendents. ASCD has developed proficiencies needed in supervision, curriculum and instruction. The State of California Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing has put into practice a program for developing, evaluating and approving professional preparation programs requiring the development of specific skills and knowledge in stated competency areas. Defining competency as a certain knowledge base with the skills to perform at an effective and requisite level, Gousha, Jones, LoPresti (1988), based on a review of the literature, proposed thirteen components of competency required for effective educational leadership.

1) Clarity of values and integrity; 2) communication skills; 3) critical thinking skills, analysis, synthesis, evaluation; 4) ability to learn from experience; 5) cultural sophistication and cross-cultural understanding; 6) empathy, understanding, and

respect for others; 7) loyalty and intimacy that go beyond understanding and tolerance; 8) sense of self in a social and historical sense; 9) understanding of relevant critical and political issues; 10) technical skills related to personnel and organizational management; 11) creative ability to incorporate new research and information from various fields; 12) foundational knowledge base; and 13) specific knowledge base.

George Klemp (1977) in his research designed to identify skills; abilities and personal characteristics required for effective work "unexpectedly found that" the amount of knowledge one acquires of a content area is generally unrelated to superior performance in an occupation and is often unrelated even to marginally acceptable performance. Certainly many occupations require a minimum level of knowledge on the part of the individual for the satisfactory discharge of work related duties, but even more occupations require only that the individual be willing and able to learn new things - in fact, it is neither the acquisition of knowledge nor the use of knowledge that distinguished the outstanding performer, but rather the cognitive skills that are developed and exercised in the process of acquiring and using knowledge. These cognitive skills constitute the first factor of occupational success." (pp. 42-44) The cognitive skills most important to success in Klemp's view are 1) information processing skills related to learning recall and forgetting, 2) conceptualizing skills (beyond an ability to analyze - the ability to synthesize information from

prior analysis), 3) the ability to understand many sides of a controversial issue, 4) the ability to learn from experience.

The second major factor linked with success involves interpersonal skills. They are communication skills and accurate empathy defined as diagnosis of human concern and as appropriate response.

The third critical factor was motivation. Klemp describes this factor like this "motivation is, after all, a need state - a prerequisite for behavior - and for a variety of reasons people are often unable to translate their dispositions into effective action. Cognitive initiative - the way one defines oneself as an actor in the motive action sequence - is an important variable. An analysis of complex managerial jobs indicates that a person who initiates action and works to dissolve blocks to progress, will, with few exceptions, have the advantage over a person who is reactive, who does not seek new opportunities.

Chickering (1981) suggests that found in research and theory, concerning human development and learning, as conceptualized by Lovevinger (1976), are conceptual frameworks that can provide useful guides for students and institutions. He also states that 1) development in the cognitive and affective domains is inextricably linked, 2) learning and human development is additive, 3) in any group of persons there will be a substantial range of individual differences in developmental state, 4) being more competent means perceiving and coping with more complex problems; not being more successful in solving them.

Wright (1984) points out that "whereas competence was once viewed as a discrete affective and/or cognitive capacity to cope, we now recognize that competence consists of multi-dimensional, widely varied and situationally determined phenomena - with some possible generic characteristics, but also with manifestations that are idiosyncratic to individuals, groups, tasks and settings." (p. 1) He further describes three essential steps to competency measurement: "(1) conceptualization of the paths of competency development of the individuals being measured, (2) construction and administration of the measuring instrument or procedure, and analysis of the data" (p. 1)

The criteria for measuring educational leadership competency should assess how effectively the organization operates. For Gordon (1963), administration has come to mean decisions and actions to achieve organizational objectives. More than others, the administration is responsible for setting the character of the organization, the goals for the future and the direction and rate of change that may anticipate or mold future conditions. What most distinguishes administration is responsibility, responsibility to see that decisions and actions necessary to achieve organizational objectives are taken and responsibility for strengthening the total resources on which the future of the organization must be built. Ultimately, the administrator is responsible for integrating the activities of a total unit of organization in relation to its total environment over time. (p. 300)

CONTENT: MULTIPLE APPROACH

A multiplicity of theories and methods is needed in educational administration preparation programs. Every theoretical perspective and every method has its emphasis and omissions.

Gordon (1963) suggests that there are at least four approaches to administration and each is really a perspective or a relative emphasis more than a separate school of thought. It is important to provide a perspective and a conceptual framework for fitting together theories, research and practice useful for continued study and improvement.

Gordon (1963) proposed a conceptual framework to provide a way to join in an educational setting the contribution of: traditionalists who have dealt with processes such as planning, organizing, and controlling; the behavioralists who have analyzed various processes of social and political interaction; the decisionists who have emphasized different perceptions of decision processes; and, the ecologists who have stressed processes of adaptation and accommodation between organisms and environments.

He believes that the content of a graduate program might be cut in different ways but the probabilities are that increasingly all four views will have to be clearly presented, appraised and synthesized if the better programs are to set the stage for continued learning.

Gordon (1963) then describes four aspects of building a conceptual framework for administration. These include:

1) The idea (fundamental) of a number of variables relating differently under differing circumstances. Some of the key variables will be those in the internal programs of the organization. Administrators may also be key variables in any administrative situation. (p. 300)

2) To provide for the inclusion of values. Purposes in organization are important and must be a part of the conceptual apparatus of the administrator and part of the study of the administration. (p. 301) Also theoretical and practical discussion of educational administration must recognize cultural diversity, i.e., theories of human development and human behavior are grounded in values of a particular culture (Cheng, 1977).

3) To decide on some unifying concept that will help in picturing the ways in which substantive aspects and value aspects may be combined and related for effective administration. The concept of a series of sub-processes of decision and action joined into a larger process of administration provides the structured aspect of the framework so that it can be visualized, communicated, so that parts can be related to the whole and so that the contributions of many related fields can be brought into focus within one framework. The emphasis on process provides a sorting rack that permits comparative studies and therefore the transfer of learning and the accumulation of knowledge in

administration. Once understood and retained, the process concept also helps the practitioner put his knowledge to use. (p. 301)

4) Define a major orientation point of view. Each of the four broad approaches (traditional, behavioral, decisional and ecological) is perceived as incorporating sub-processes all of which when combined and fused, join into the larger process of administration. The framework permits the incorporation and comparison of many approaches as well as the joining of values, substance and processes. (p. 302)

The conceptual framework should facilitate evaluation and use of research findings. Ideally, researcher and practitioners should share a concern to discover and verify the existence of similarities, differences and patterns understated condition with stated probabilities. (p. 299)

CLINICAL EXPERIENCES

An effective program preparing school administrators must be concerned both with developing a knowledge base and with presenting an opportunity to develop skills that practicing professionals are required to perform.

Lincoln (1978) has proposed a conceptual framework for administrative internships. The framework identifies general goals that might be accomplished by internships and outlines the circumstances under which these goals are most likely to be accomplished. The model has two dimensions: structure and orientation. Structure exists on a continuum, with some

internships being highly structured in that duties, functions and responsibilities for the intern are carefully spelled out prior to the intern assuming his/her role. Other internships are essentially unstructured with duties, experiences or opportunities occurring in a more or less random nature. The orientation of an internship may be: person-centered or role model, mission, office, or institution-centered, or function- or process-centered. The orientation of the internship, according to Lincoln, should be highly correlated with the intern's professional goals and prior administrative experience.

The person-centered or role model orientation involves the placement of the intern with an exemplary administrative leader who serves as a model for the internship. This "power-shadowing" experience might be most appropriate for an intern who has little or no previous administrative experience and who can benefit by observing and participating alongside a person of recognized administrative ability.

The mission-, office-, or institution-centered orientation involves placement of the intern in a setting which is a "sub-set or specialization" within an area of administration. Lincoln uses student personnel administration, administration of continuing education and financial aid as some examples of this particular kind of orientation in higher education institutions. Parallels in the administration of public schools could easily be drawn and might include: business management, instruction, or personnel management. The mission-, office-, or institution-

centered orientation focus would likely be chosen by interns who had some previous administrative experience, are well advanced in their academic programs and wished to specialize in a particular area of administration.

The function- or process-centered orientation is the most specialized orientation in the model. Interns utilizing this orientation would focus on a single aspect of administration such as budget construction or long-range planning, in order to gain an in-depth experience in a chosen function or process. Lincoln conceptualizes the internship as providing a broad range of experiences. The intern is active in negotiating his/her own experience and must be allowed to develop additional knowledge and skills beyond those he/she already possesses.

Peper (1987) states that "a well designed and executed clinical education for prospective school administrators would be one which is laced tightly into a matrix of academic course preparation and rigorous research on administrative practice and policy development. Ultimately a matrix of academic preparation and clinical experience must conjoin in a single developmental lattice of sequenced intersections." (p. 2)

He cites Bloom's (1982) analysis of educational patterns of concert pianists and olympic swimmers where skill development occurs in three distinctive stages: 1) exploration which takes place with a nurturant, generalist teacher who encourages horizontal and vertical exploration; 2) there is a period of instruction under the guidance of a specialized skill instructor

who teaches and analyzes technique; 3) a few swimmers develop under the tutelage of final stage coaches who teach the artistic elements of polished success.

He also cites Joyce's (1986) model of skill acquisition in teaching which also holds certain applicability to the acquisition of school administration skills. The model provides a theoretical approach, demonstrated basic skill and moves from simple to complex, from basic to artistic; from directed to independent practice. As the novice gains experience the role of the instructor shifts to observer/analyzer and in advanced stages of development, the instructor uses feedback and evaluation directed toward fine motor development and nuances of artistic expression.

Peper (1987) proposed that clinical teaching for administrators also needs to be structured in a similar fashion and suggests eight to twelve categories of skill groupings. Peper's stages of development of the skill categories are:

Level I. Awareness and exploration of skills would become an integral component of the didactic program. Each course professor would make conscientious efforts to acquaint students with theoretical underpinnings for different skill categories and levels as well as acquisition techniques during the lecture experience.

Level II. Onsight observations of illustrative skill users would be required with reports of observations. Here is where businesses, state departments, school districts and citizen groups could play a major role without creating infeasible burdens or costs.

Level III. Demonstration laboratories should be provided at universities with prepared cases and practice techniques for students to begin low-risk/success-prone early experiences. These laboratories could be established with computers and video feedback materials along with hard disk examples for student use.

Level IV. The structured internship would be offered all candidates under an accomplished adjunct clinical professor, principal or other administrator. Here the skill professor would expect student administrators to undertake projects, and the clinical experience would be directed toward advanced skill attainment in a number of categories.

Level V. Consultation in the art of practice should be provided to principals or superintendents by one or more university-based clinical professors during a period of probation. Consultants, along with district administrators, would counsel with the new appointee on development of the polish needed to gain full professional status.

In looking toward a developmental model of executive interaction, Fry and Pasmore (1983) came to the basic assumption that interacting is a significant part of the functioning of the executive mind - that only through interaction with others will executives be able to resolve generativity issues in their personal development, develop and maintain relationships necessary to learn from experience and be able to create new, shared visions of problems or actions to be taken in the face of overwhelming complexity. (p. 285) They suggest five basic types of levels of interaction in and out of organizational settings.

1) Single frame interaction goals is to communicate one's own sense of meaning to another, not to change it, to debate it or to reframe it (lecture)

2) Multiple frame interaction or dialogue puts two or more positions on the table so similarities and differences become clear (case study discussion)

3) Frame linking interaction: face to face talk which is problem or outcome focused and in which the parties to the

discussion are interdependent. In work settings, frame linking interaction is often what typifies participation strategies of integrating mechanisms (Galbraith, 1977) such as task forces, committees or project teams.

Frame linking is then the process of connecting like thoughts, cutting away differences, and adding together ideas in order to arrive at an outcome acceptable to all parties. A major contribution of frame linking is that it is made up of experience based input.

4) Frame sharing interaction - parties to it have increased experience with one another in one another's presence; is necessarily face to face and is self regulated by the participants, rather than constrained by some tasks or project requirements (as in frame linking).

5) Frame breaking interaction

Traux and Carkhuff (1967) documented the fact that relationships that provide for effective mentoring and coaching are based on mutual trust, respect and a sense of shared understanding of one another regardless of title, training or expertise, the ability to rise above the immediate situation, go beyond current definitions of problems and think past current solutions toward new visions, new conceptions of issues and new questions. Such framebreaking does not occur in isolation. It is the consequence of interacting with significant others who provide nurturance, challenge and safety for the executive to dare pose a new framework.

Whereas frame sharing requires the parties to reflect on what and who they are, frame breaking requires reflection on what they are not.

The discovery of one's theory in use through others' experience of oneself and awareness of new theories to experiment with are outcomes of frame breaking interaction. (pp. 286-292)

COLLABORATION

Emery and Trist's (1963) topology of the causal texture of organizational environments has been employed to describe the world of educational organizations. The authors describe four environments: 1) the placid random, 2) the placid clustered, 3) the disturbed reactive and 4) turbulent fields. Criticism of school administration as taught in graduate schools of education by a variety of scholars and practitioners (e.g., Lynton, 1983; Tucker, 1988; Peterson & Finn, 1985; Pitner, 1982; Jacoby, 1987; Cunningham, 1982; Thomson, 1988) suggests that educational organizations are indeed in turbulent fields. In turbulent fields, "dynamic processes create significant variances for the component organizations. They arise, not from their own interaction, but from the field itself. The field is in motion. Such environments require some relationship between dissimilar organizations whose fates are positively correlated." (p. 227)

In a turbulent environment where conflict, competition and unpredictability rule, organizations tend to collaborate and therefore change their value systems to produce a modified environment. Much of Emery and Trist's theory would seem

applicable to modifying educational environments through collaboration of organizations with differing responsibilities to similar clientele (Carol, 1975).

Thomson (1988) suggests that to benefit the profession of school administration we need structures for a genuine dialogue, the establishment of new linkages that can lead to mutually compatible goals. The profession of educational administration like the other major professions must rest upon a solid collaboration between practitioner and theoretician.

In pointing out the need for collaborative investment in effective administrator preparation programs Carol (1975) suggests that "the complicated problems that emerge from an incredible mosaic of actors, needs, demands and environments in the educational arena have roots which need to be unraveled and understood through the planned use of knowledge acquired from many places; some that may, at first blush, seem remote from educational administration. Nevertheless, a host of resources must be considered and appropriate selections made to bring together those whose knowledge and skills can improve the field." (p. 9)

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

This review has been selective, suggestive and not exhaustive. The material related to the topic is vast. The following observations are made in order to highlight the most important problem facing educational leadership preparation programs: how to link through structured interfaces universities

(and the various units within them - schools of education - departments of educational leadership) government agencies, school districts and professional associations each with their unique strengths and resources that can be combined to further a mutual goal.

1. Perceptions should not be considered secondary to "facts." Perceptions shape public opinion and often determine the decisions of policymakers. The only way a graduate can judge whether the preparation he or she has received at the university is by comparing what he or she can do with what he or she is being asked to do on the job.

2. It is the increasing responsibility of the university not merely to be a principal source of new knowledge but also to be instrumental in analyzing and applying this knowledge and in making it rapidly useful to all societal sectors. Universities must broaden their approach to provide competency rather than mere knowledge.

3. It is necessary for schools of education faculty and the faculty of other units on the campus to develop an understanding and appreciation for the unique role a professional school plays in meeting the purpose of a graduate research institution. Professional schools are involved in more than the preparation of practitioners. Underlying the preparation of practitioners is a concern with expanding the knowledge base of the profession. This is accomplished by defining the critical problem germane to

the profession and by devising means for addressing these problems.

Such a process requires using the research perspectives of the basic disciplines in developing an understanding of professional issues. A continuing relationship with the field of practice is necessary for a professional faculty to sustain a research program that is both of high quality and relevant.

4. Students need to learn how to translate concepts created in other fields, while at the same time using their own professional field as a starting point for generating new knowledge. Excellence in the preparation of educational leadership depends on the continuing interaction among the field, department of educational leadership, schools of education and the basic disciplines. Reid (1986) reminds us of the "importance for professional practice of the support of publics outside the professions and beyond institutions. The theory on which professions act gets its essential meaning and significance from the outside world, not simply from the consensus of those within a profession and it is essential that they address themselves to these wider publics to implant in their minds the image of the profession which those within it would like to own. He concludes that it is the symbiotic relationship between centers of excellence and professional leaders that keeps alive, through deed as well as word, the virtues to which the practice of a profession is dedicated. Equally it is the same partnership

which manages the transition to a more rationalized view of professional practice when that is what is demanded." (p. 14)

5. It is important to reexamine the ways in which new knowledge through research is disseminated. Because of the rapid change in society it is essential to recognize, evaluate and reward dissemination of knowledge by additional means other than publications in refereed journals.

6. The university and departments of educational administration must be, in addition to being a major source of new knowledge, a part of analyzing and applying this knowledge and making it useful to a variety of constituents. Within universities preparing school administrators the role of teaching includes requirements to conduct research and to provide public service.

One of the dilemmas of university-school collaboration which is also applicable to the clinical preparation of administrators is cited by Hazzard (1967):

> Our problem is not that the worlds of the university and the school cannot be joined, but rather that by positing the existing institutional arrangements for the clinical training of teachers we have necessarily limited the potential effectiveness of the clinical professorship by insisting that it be created by means of minor ad hoc modifications of the existing structure.

A faculty performance matrix with a greater number of performance cells rather than the traditional three as suggested by Florestano and Hambrick (1984) offers one step toward resolving confusion which results from lumping activities of different value into the same categories. Educational

administration could more formally build service skills into its curricula.

7. Among possible initiatives for university consideration relating to preparation programs in educational leadership is 1) to combine intellectual resources from a mix of professional schools, as well as from the liberal arts and schools, 2) creating joint clinical settings to be shared by several professional programs.

8. To ensure appropriate training of school leaders requires the focusing of resources and energies on a limited number of excellent administrator preparation programs.

9. Professional roles in educational administration are undergoing radical change. Administrator preparation programs will have to get away from emphasis on training for roles and focus on management in general as well as providing groundings in teaching, learning issues and alternative modes of organizing education (variation and commitment to performance).

10. Schulman's discussion of teaching's knowledge base has applicability to the knowledge base in educational administration (1988, Olsen). The knowledge that drives preparation program in educational administration is replete with contingencies depending on what is involved, who is involved, where, when. Such complex information cannot be reflected in checklist of competencies that all administrators must meet.

The knowledge base in educational administration should be the total store of understanding that the profession has

available to inform, guide, and illuminate practice and should include theory and examples of best practice from the field.

11. A listing of curriculum modification for departments of educational administration might include: 1) better preparation for teamwork combining a range of individual skills. 2) more emphasis on the interpersonal and other noncognitive aspects of professional life. 3) explicit discussion of competing values and the trade-offs involved in decisions. 4) greater emphasis on problem solving using the perspectives of several disciplines. 5) a continuing effort to provide closer linkage between theoretical analysis and practical experiences. 6) more discussions of the limitations as well as the benefits of disciplinary methodology and professional technique. 7) more focus on the social, economic and political context of all professional activities (Lynton, 1983).

12. Special attention should be paid to the moral dimension of educational practice - promoting an appreciation and understanding of moral issues in education; encouraging the critical examination and resolution of those issues; and fostering a commitment in practice to the highest ethical standards of the profession.

13. Theoretical and practical discussion of educational leadership must recognize cultural diversity, i.e., theories of human development and human behaviors are grounded in the values of a particular culture.

14. For each component of competency needed by the educational leader there are questions to be resolved on alternative conceptions of competence, diversity in how competence is manifested (cultural, racial and gender related diversity); and interactive approaches in the assessment and development of competencies. Such questions must be considered in relation to human resource development in institutions and organizations.

15. As Argyris and Schon argue excessive emphasis on technique in professional training leads professionals to become coercive distorting the context and defining the problem so as to assure the predictable working of technique, rather than to find the proper combination and modifications of techniques to resolve the actual situation.

16. Although some professional development may be attained by individuals through independent study and keeping up-to-date an increasing amount must be provided in an organized approach as environmental factors change substantially. What are the implications for pre-employment preparation programs and collaboration?

17. Clinical experiences should be flexible to meet the varied personal and professional needs of participants. Highly structured programs in which each intern has an identical set of experiences should be avoided.

18. During the clinical experience there should be a blend of classroom experience with the field experience to ensure a

firm bond between the theoretical and the practical. Interns must learn the right way to do things in conjunction with the reasons why certain alternatives are better than others.

19. Adequate time for the clinical experiences should be provided. An extended period of time when the prospective administrator can be a student of administration in a field setting is desirable. During this period the clinical experience should not be subordinated to another role but should, in fact, be the primary role.

20. Due to uneven levels of interdependence among parties participating in clinical programs (school districts, universities, professional associations), cooperation will depend on there being a significant reward for each party involved. Programs should be designed to insure that each party does in fact realize a significant reward.

21. Learning to think like a professional now requires learning to build one's own theory of practice, which in turn requires engaging in situations of practice.

22. One of the fundamental problems in establishing collaboration among separate but relevant disciplines, institutions, agencies and associations is whether such collaboration can be effectively established and continued without institutionalizing their relationship through a formal organizational structure.

Those who are disturbed about the education of professionals in educational administration should concentrate on one of the

most important problems facing educational leadership: How to link all parties to the preparation, credentialing and employment of school administrators in redefinition of what the respective roles of these sectors should be. The task is urgent, compelling and difficult.

In his book Cleveland (1985) writes:

> But in my judgement we have an even greater need for what the modern university, by and large, is not producing: analysts who can relate "hard" technologies to their "soft" impacts and implications; reflective practitioners who are concerned with human values; educators who can teach in widened perspective. Managers who can bring their specialized brothers and sisters into organizations to make things happen; legislators who can relate all the policies they make to each other; in a word generalist leaders who can get it all together." (p. 191)

> I cannot find a single individual who is against integrative thinking. Everyone seems to know that in the real world, all the problems are interdisciplinary and all the solutions are interdepartmental, inter professional, interdependent, and international. Yet our institutions start with a heavy bias against breadth." (p. 197)

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